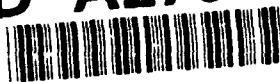


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THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INSTRUMENT TO
MEASURE
FOURTEEN THEORETICAL FACTORS FOR THE
ATTRIBUTION OF CHARISMA

THESIS

Tyler J. Bach, Captain, USAF
Michael J. Labosky, Captain, USAF

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**THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INSTRUMENT TO MEASURE
FOURTEEN THEORETICAL FACTORS FOR THE
ATTRIBUTION OF CHARISMA**

THESIS

**Presented to the Faculty of the School of Logistics
and Acquisition Management
of the Air Force Institute of Technology
Air University
In Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Science in Logistics Management**

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Abstract

This study attempted to validate Hicks' (1991) findings of 11 factors which could be used to measure the attribution of charisma. Three new factors were added and their validity measured. The instrument measured whether followers differentiated between charismatic and non-charismatic leaders in terms of these factors. Finally, we wanted to see if the subjects responded differently to the attribution of charisma based on gender or whether or not they had someone in mind as they completed the instrument.

The instrument was based on Hicks' (1991) condensation of his 37 original parameters into 11 factors. His semantic differentials were used, changing some of the original word pairs in the hope of improving the correlations among the factors. In some cases, all the original scales were left intact for each factor.

Cronbach's Alpha was used to measure the validity of the 14 factors and to compare them to the previous findings. All 14 factors were validated, some with modifications, as measures of the attribution of charisma, and compared favorably with Hicks (1991). It was determined that the changes made to the original scales did not help their validity.

A paired t-test showed that 10 of the 14 factors were

used by subjects to differentiate between charismatic and non-charismatic leaders. Bonferonni's multiple comparison of treatments was used to reveal that men and women attribute charisma similarly except in isolated cases, and that whether or not a person had someone in mind as they filled out the survey made little difference for the attribution of charisma.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INSTRUMENT TO MEASURE FOURTEEN THEORETICAL FACTORS FOR THE ATTRIBUTION OF CHARISMA

I. Introduction

General Topic

Leaders of all types, from business executives to military officers and politicians are expected to be grounded in the rudiments of leadership theory. Leadership seminars and conferences abound, and all professional organizations provide a list of recommended readings on leadership topics. In short, anyone in a position of authority and responsibility is expected to know what it takes to be a leader, and how to go about developing leadership ability.

Theories of leadership flourish in the literature. They begin with the Great Man Theory which essentially states that all events which are important, either on an international, national, or more mundane level are brought about by the influence of a "great man" (Bass & Stogdill, 1990:37-38). Francis Galton in his book Hereditary Genius, maintains that the genius to which he refers is an expression of ability that is exceptionally high and at the same time inborn (1869:viii). He believed that a man's

natural abilities are obtained through inheritance, under exactly the same limitations as his form and physical features (Galton, 1869:viii). Furthermore, he believed that there are a large number of instances in which men who are more or less illustrious have eminent kinsfolk (Galton, 1869:5). For instance, the son of a "great man" will be more likely than others to be a "great man" himself. Great changes in the history of an organization or society generally result from the innovative efforts of a few superior individuals (Jennings, 1960:1). Great Man Theory is the parent of the modern approach to leadership (Jennings, 1960:3). Jennings reports that leadership is represented mainly by an emotional and even unconscious attitude rather than an intellectual or rational attitude (1960:4). The natural outgrowth of the Great Man Theory was for researchers to look at the traits of the great men, and situations they found themselves in. This led to the development of trait, situational, and personal-situational theories (Bass & Stogdill, 1990:55).

Trait theory maintained that people possessing certain personal characteristics would be effective leaders. David Page in a study of 1,134 West Point Military Academy graduates concluded that:

... leadership is a function of a definite situation, that we cannot talk about leadership traits in general, but only as they appear in particular situations. Leadership may, in fact, like the natural forces, be easier to predict than to define; and if so, the materials used in prediction may serve in lieu of a definition. (1935:41)

Although pure trait theory fell into disrepute in the 1940s, Bass and Stogdill (1990:38) point to the necessity for including the personality of a leader along with the situation he finds himself in. "Any theory of leadership must take account of the interplay between the situation and the individual" (Bass & Stogdill, 1990: 40). This idea is the cornerstone of personal-situational theories of leadership.

Another view of leadership deals with attribution theory. This theory states that leaders who match an individual's ideas of what a "leader" is are people who actually are leaders. Attribution of leadership traits by followers is actually what makes leaders (Pfeffer, 1977:109). Attribution is associating happenings and causal relationships to an individual or event. It is applying an individual's knowledge of causal relationships in order to exercise control of his world (Kelley, 1971:2). If a person does what the group members believe a leader should do, the member attributes leadership status to that person (Bass & Stogdill, 1990:50). This also describes role theory. The primary focus in attribution theory is on processes by which the "person on the street" forms an understanding either of observed or of personal events (Harvey, Orbuch, and Weber, 1992:2). Attribution can be viewed as a persuasive or communicative act which is often intended to convince others about some state of affairs (Harvey et al., 1992:2). The study of attribution is a study in naive psychology -- an

examination of how persons make sense out of the events around them (Pfeffer, 1977:109).

One of the attributes associated with leadership is charisma. Charisma is defined as "that certain quality of an individual personality by which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities" (Weber, 1968:358).

On the basis of attribution theory, it follows that if a person attributes charismatic traits to a leader because he displays what that person believes are charismatic behaviors, then for that follower, the leader is charismatic. This idea has import for this thesis because the semantic differential methods used herein rely on individual perceptions of the qualities deemed charismatic by the subjects participating in the study.

By 1960, the idea of leader-follower interaction led to the dominance of transformational leadership paradigms in the study of leadership (Bass & Stogdill, 1990:53). In their book The Transformational Leader, Tichy and Devanna state that "transformational leadership is about change, innovation, and entrepreneurship" (1986:viii). They continue in saying that transformational leadership is a behavioral process which can be learned and managed (Tichy et. al., 1986:viii). It is a systematic leadership process, consisting of purposeful and organized searches for changes,

analysis, and the capacity to adopt and move resources to areas of greater productivity (Tichy et. al., 1986:viii).

The earlier mentioned increased productivity is what a transformational leader can do for an organization.

Specifically, a transformational leader, according to Bass, recognizes existing needs in potential followers, but is inclined to take a step further (1985:14). The transformational leader seeks to arouse and satisfy higher needs and to engage the follower on a personal level (Bass, 1986:14). "Transformational leaders can attempt and succeed in elevating those influenced from a lower to a higher level of need according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs" (Bass, 1985:15). Specifically, the transformational leader enhances the higher-order needs of esteem and self-actualization (Bass, 1985:15). Furthermore, "the transformational leader can move those influenced to transcend their own self-interest for the good of the group, organization, or country (Bass, 1985:15)."

"Transformational leaders change organizational culture, what can be talked about, and the social warp and woof of reality (Bass, 1985:24)."

The decision style of the transformational leader includes identifying transcendental goals toward which he may direct followers to work (Bass, 1985:28). Transformational leaders may accomplish this by providing persuasive symbols and images about what a renewed organization would look like; they may consult followers on

their awareness of the importance of the organization's objective; they may search for a participative consensus for restructuring the organization (Bass, 1985:28-29).

The charismatic leader also draws similar response from his followers. Furthermore, the deep emotional attachment which characterizes the relationship of the charismatic leader to his followers may be present when transformational leadership occurs (Bass, 1985:31). "Charisma is a necessary ingredient of transformational leadership, but by itself is not sufficient to account for the transformational process (Bass, 1986:31)."

Research in charismatic leadership shows us that "Although followers endow a leader with charisma to fulfill their situational needs, they do not endow just anybody. The person who is endowed must have abilities that are relevant to the situation" (Bass & Stogdill, 1990:188-89). The theories of attribution, personal-situational and transformational leadership are tied together in the idea of the charismatic leader. Bass and Stogdill further state that subordinates often do not rate leaders they perceive as charismatic with objectivity (1990:194). In fact, they are apt to be lenient as "they rate prototypes of a generalized leader that they carry around in their heads" (Bass & Stogdill, 1990:194). In short, "Charisma is in the eye of the beholder and, therefore, is relative to the beholder" (Bass & Stogdill, 1990:193). This thesis is based on this premise.

Problem Statement

The nature of charisma and charismatic leaders makes it a difficult area for gathering empirical data. The reason for this is the way charisma is attributed by the beholder. Capt. Dan Hicks initiated the research of parameters found in the literature which could account for the attribution of charisma. Specifically, Hicks' thesis identified and tested 37 parameters from sociological, psychological, management, and organizational science research. In fact, using factor analysis, 11 factors showed their statistical relevance. The purpose of this study is to test and validate the 11 factors delineated by Hicks (1991). Furthermore, this study will attempt to redefine some of the semantic differentials of these factors which Hicks found to be significant in the hope of showing their validity for defining charismatic leadership. This thesis will also include parameters not included in Hicks' study, taken from literature written since his study was published.

Research Objectives

The first objective is to try to replicate Hicks' reference findings on the eleven factors derived from grouping his 37 parameters. This chapter reviews how these factors were measured and how they will be treated again.

The second objective is to improve the reliability and validity of some of the factors by redefining some of the semantic differentials Hicks used to describe the original parameters. The strength of these factors may be enhanced by using more valid semantic differential word pairs to describe certain parameters which feed into them. Chapter II, Literature Review, discusses these factors and semantic differentials, and Chapter III, Methodology will later review how these semantic differentials were redefined.

The third objective is to extract new parameters of charismatic leadership from research of the literature and to apply the methods of semantic differential word pair descriptions to discover their ability to define charismatic leadership. Specifically, we built new word pairs to describe the new characteristics of *nurturing* and *pragmatic* as described by Ross and Offerman and reported by House and Howell (1992:88).

The fourth objective is to determine if the characteristics females attribute to charisma are different from those males attribute to charismatic leaders. We also want to determine if subjects respond differently to our survey if they had a specific leader or not in mind while they filled it out. The reader will find a discussion of the methods used and conclusions of this portion of the research in Chapter III, Methodology, and Chapter IV, Findings.

Definitions

Charisma. "A personal characteristic of extraordinary power or charm attributed to the possessor by another based on the relationship between the two persons" (Hicks, 1991:6). Furthermore, Weber described a charismatic leader as one with "...that certain quality of an individual personality by which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities" (1967:358).

Charismatic Leader. An individual who "exhibits behaviors and characteristics that cause others to attribute to him or her charisma" (Hicks, 1991:6).

Charismatic Parameter. A charismatic parameter is a factor associated with the attribution of charisma. This factor is attributed by the followers to the charismatic leader.

Attribution. Attribution is assigning a quality, property, or characteristic to something based on observed behavior.

Thesis Outline

Chapter II, Literature Review, will begin with an overview of the development of charismatic leadership

theory. It will include a discussion of the parameters that will be redefined and the new parameters taken from recent literature.

Chapter III, Methodology, will review the rationale for modifying the semantic differential and critical incident methods used by Hicks. This chapter will also address the changes made in Hicks' factors. Chapter III also describes the plan for administering the semantic differential instrument in an attempt to validate Hicks' eleven factors research and the new parameters. Finally, Chapter III describes the methods used to analyze the data gathered in this study.

Chapter IV will describe the findings of the validation of Hicks' factors, including the reworking of the semantic differentials. This chapter will also contain the results obtained from the study of the new parameters taken from more recent literature. A statistical analysis of each of the factors ability to attribute charisma will add validity to Hicks' study and broaden its base by adding more attributed parameters to the instrument. Additionally, this chapter will summarize any differences in the way men and women attribute charisma.

Chapter V will contain conclusions and recommendations for further work on the subject of charismatic leadership. The recommendations will stem directly from lessons learned during research on this project.

II. Literature Review

Introduction

This literature review explores charismatic leadership and its relevance for today's leaders. The United States Air Force (USAF) is experiencing the kind of radical change which requires exceptional leadership. It is plausible to describe this required leadership as charismatic. The attributes of charisma have been delineated (Hicks, 1991:172), and research shows that charismatic leaders can function within organizations (Bass, 1990:25, Howell, 1989:265). This review looks at a variety of sources from management, sociological, and psychoanalytical researchers. These sources reveal that the attributes of charismatic leaders can be taught in businesses and bureaucracies (Zaleznik, 1977:77). People need to feel they lead an ordered existence. The person who can bring order or who seems inspired is one to whom charisma is attributed; he is one to whom others look to provide order and coherence (Shils, 1965:201,203). Specifically, understanding exactly what these attributes are has benefits for the USAF and other organizations.

This review provides the following:

1. A historical perspective of charisma.
2. An explanation of the need for charisma.

3. A review of the differences between leaders and managers.
4. An explanation of why charisma is important to organizations.
5. A discussion of attribution theory.
6. A description of the 11 factors delineated by Hicks (1991).
7. A review of how to identify and train charismatics.

History of Charisma

The concept of charisma first appeared in the ecclesiastical world in the Christian New Testament. It comes from the Greek word *karismata* (Hicks, 1991:8) meaning, gifts (Conger and Kanungo, 1987:637). Specifically, these attributes were described as "gifts from God...to be used for Him" (Hicks, 1991:8). These gifts were used as a basis for the structure and roles within the Christian church (Conger and Kanungo, 1987:638).

The first person to bring the concept of charismatic leadership into the 20th century was a German sociologist, Max Weber (Stone, 1990:43-47). Weber concentrated on the concept of authority and he discussed three types: traditional, rational, and charismatic (Weber, 1968:46). Charismatic authority can be separated from traditional and rational because "the obligation of obedience is not based on the impersonal order, but is a matter of personal loyalty within the area of accustomed obligations" (Weber, 1968:46). Weber continues:

In the case of charismatic authority, it is the charismatically qualified leader as such who is obeyed by virtue of personal trust in him and his revelation, his heroism or his exemplary qualities so far as they fall within the scope of the individual's belief in his charisma. (1968:46-47)

Today, Hicks defines charisma as: "A personal characteristic of extraordinary power or charm attributed to the possessor by another based on the relationship between the two persons" (1991:6). Furthermore, a charismatic leader is one that "exhibits behaviors and characteristics that cause others to attribute to him or her charisma" (Hicks, 1991:6). Weber described a charismatic leader as one with "...that certain quality of an individual personality by which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities" (1967:358). Furthermore, it is essential that the leader be perceived as charismatic (Weber, 1965:359). Weber states: "It is recognition on the part of those subject to authority which is decisive for the validity of charisma" (1965:359). Weber's and Hicks' definitions of a charismatic leader form a relatively comprehensive view of charisma and we will use them to guide our research.

The Need for Order

Today's Air Force is ripe for the emergence of charismatic leadership. "The disposition to attribute

charisma is intimately related to the need for order" (Shils, 1965:204). As the USAF struggles to find its place in a changing world, undergoing drastic changes itself, the need for order that Air Force members experience may cause them to "attribute charisma" to some leader yet to arise.

Shils continues:

The generator or author of order arouses the charismatic responsiveness. Whether it is God's law or natural law or scientific law or positive law or the society as a whole, or even a particular corporate body or institution like an Army, whatever embodies expresses or symbolizes the essence of an ordered cosmos or any significant sector thereof awakens the disposition of awe and reverence, the charismatic disposition. Men need an order within which they can locate themselves, an order providing coherence, continuity, and justice. (1965:203)

Additionally, Shamir in his 1991 paper states that the quest for order, within and outside the organization, is basic to most people (86). Furthermore, fear of chaos is rooted in the need for order (Shamir, 1991:86).

"Charismatic leadership... is a function of the need for order and meaning, and its perceived ability to provide such order and meaning" (Shamir, 1991:87).

Leaders or Managers

Abraham Zaleznik illustrates that managers and leaders have different attitudes toward goals and relations with others. Managers are passive toward goals while leaders

often take greater risks, "especially where opportunity and reward appear high" (Zaleznik, 1977:72). Managers like to work with people, thinking of them in terms of the role they play in a process, while leaders tend more to solitariness and their object is "to profoundly alter human, economic, and political relationships" (Zaleznik, 1977:75). This fundamental difference in approach to goals can make the difference between success and failure (Bass, 1990:31).

Furthermore, John Kotter of the Harvard Business School says that leaders differ in terms of their primary functions (1990:7). Leadership can produce useful change within the organization (Kotter, 1990:7). In contrast, management can create orderly results which keep the organization working efficiently (Kotter, 1990:7). Kotter continues in saying that both leadership and management are needed for an organization to prosper (1990:7). Strong leadership and strong management is the only combination which will most likely produce satisfactory results (Kotter, 1990:7). The following table compares management and leadership along four criteria:

1. Creating an agenda.
2. Developing a human network for achieving agenda.
3. Execution.
4. Outcomes.

TABLE 1
COMPARING MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP (Kotter, 1990:6)

	Management	Leadership
Creating an Agenda	Planning and Budgeting - establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving needed results, and then allocating the resources necessary to make that happen	Establishing Direction - developing a vision of the future, often the distant future, and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision
Developing a human network for achieving agenda	Organizing and Staffing - establishing some structure for accomplishing plan requirements, staffing that structure with individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people, and creating methods or systems to monitor implementation	Aligning People - communicating the direction by words and deeds to all those whose cooperation may be needed so as to influence the creation of teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies, and accept their validity
Execution	Controlling and Problem Solving - monitoring results vs. plan in some detail, identifying deviations, and then planning and organizing to solve these problems	Motivating and Inspiring - energizing people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers to change by satisfying very basic, but often unfulfilled, human needs

TABLE 1 (Continued)
COMPARING MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP (Kotter, 1990:6)

Outcomes	Produces a degree of predictability and order, and has the potential of consistently producing key results expected by various stakeholders (e.g., for customers, always being on time; for stockholders, being on budget)	Produces change, often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential of producing extremely useful change (e.g., new products that customers want, new approaches to labor relations that make a firm more competitive)
-----------------	--	---

One example of the difference between leaders and managers and their respective approaches to goals and relationships is the development of the Polaroid Camera by Edwin Land. He took an existing technology and translated it into a product which met people's desires, illustrating the active shaping of goals and ideas pursued by leaders (Zaleznik, 1977:71). In contrast, Alfred Sloan of the Ford Motor Company suppressed the opportunity for water-cooled engines by playing its inventor, Charles Kettering, against the division of Ford opposed to the engine. This manager looked at the roles people played within the organization, and a golden opportunity for technological advancement was lost to manipulative management (Zaleznik, 1977:71). Thus we see that there are at least some situations in which a leader is preferable to a manager.

Charisma in Organizations

Bass describes the difference between managers and leaders as a difference between transactional (managers) and transformational leadership (1990:21). We can equate transformational with charismatic. Bass describes the transformational leader as a charismatic leader who possesses "energy, self confidence, determination, intellect, verbal skills, and strong ego ideals." He continues, "Transformational leadership should be encouraged, for it can make a big difference in the firm's performance at all levels" (Bass, 1990:25). Furthermore, Bass' research shows that employees do a better job when they have leaders who are transformational (1990:26,27). Conger and Kanungo assert employees perform better because charismatic leaders attempt to transform their followers as well as the organizational environment (1988:643). Charismatic leaders are proven better performers and they can work well in organizations (Bass, 1990:25, Berlew, 1974:22, Conger and Kanungo, 1988:643). Additionally, House and Howell cite Ross and Offerman's unpublished 1990 paper which found that "charismatic leaders change organizational cultures, goals, ideology, and follower norms" (1992:88).

Berlew also says charismatic leaders provide organizational excitement which keeps floundering organizations going and successful organizations excelling (1974:22). Furthermore, charismatic leadership addresses

the desire for "meaningful work, self-reliance, community, excellence, service, and social responsibility" (Berlew, 1974:22). Charismatics also unify employees in pursuing goals worthy of their best efforts (Berlew, 1974:23). Subordinates are strengthened with the charismatic's common vision and the employees become energized. They feel they are improving their world for good and they will test the limits of their abilities (Berlew, 1974:23). It is obvious that charismatic leaders have profound effects on organizations and their employees. This merits further understanding and research.

Attribution Theory

Starting with Hick's and Weber's definitions of charisma, it is clear that charisma is attributed by followers to leaders. Other theories include individual trait theories and situational theories. Basically, trait theories hypothesize that individuals have certain traits they can use for leadership (Bass and Stogdill, 1990:37). Situational theories hypothesize that leadership is primarily dependent on the situation (Stogdill, 1990:40). However, the focus of this research is on how others attribute charisma. Puffer states: "The study of leadership from the perspective of attribution theory is based on the premise that leadership is an ambiguous concept open to

interpretation by observers" (1990:177). Attribution is associating happenings and causal relationships to an individual. In other words, leadership is in the eye of the beholder. Puffer goes on to say attributions may be swayed by features of three liberal categories: "the leader's attitudes and behaviors, the situation, and the observer's characteristics" (1990:178).

Conger and Kanungo (1987:643), and Puffer (1990:180) continue to narrow the discussion to the charismatic leadership attributes of expertise or the ability to perform tasks effectively, risk taking, and personal characteristics such as the ability to create excitement.

Calder provides an attribution model of leadership which consists of four stages (Calder, 1977:197). The first stage of leadership is the observation by a follower of a behavior and the effects of this behavior on the attribution process (Calder, 1977:197). In the second stage of the attribution process, "actual and inferred observations are either accepted or rejected as evidence of leadership" (Calder, 1977:197). To be accepted as evidence of leadership, the individual leader's behavior must be distinguishable. The third stage takes the potential leadership behavior and evaluates its worth in attributing leadership (Calder, 1977:200-201). The final stage includes the biases of the follower and how it effects the attribution of leadership (Calder, 1977:201). The key point in this final stage is "the attribution of leadership would

seem much easier if it facilitates attainment of one's goals" (Calder, 1977:202).

This leads us to our next topic -- specific attributes of our study taken from Hick's thesis (1991) and further research concerning possible other charismatic parameters (House and Howell, 1992:88, Bem, 1977:83).

Parameters/Attributes

The 37 parameters Hicks gathered from the multitude of charismatic leadership theories are the basis for the 11 factors derived from his research. Furthermore, there are a few attributes described in current research which will be added to the testing. These are the parameters of nurturing and pragmatic (House and Howell, 1992:88). Our research will focus on defining survey semantic differentials (Osgood, Succi, and Tannenbaum, 1957:25) that define Hicks' eleven factors. These are not semantic differentials with polar opposites such as **good** and **bad** (Osgood et al., 1957:28). Also, they are not semantic differentials with positive or negative connotation. These are semantic differentials which represent either charismatic or non-charismatic leadership. The following attributes are identified in Hicks' research and will be briefly described:

Arrogant. The charismatic leader may seem arrogant based on the strength of his charismatic personality and

commitment to his own vision (Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975).

Assertive. Confident and aggressive behavior may cause the attribution of charisma (Conger & Kanungo, 1987).

Catalyst for Change. The charismatic doesn't seek the status quo, but rather seeks to initiate change (Conger & Kanungo, 1987).

Concerned for Others. A charismatic leader demonstrates a deep concern for others if charisma is to be attributed (House, 1977).

Distant. Katz and Kahn maintain that a charismatic keeps a distance between himself and followers which helps maintain the exceptional nature of the charismatic (1978:546).

Effective. The charismatic chooses the proper path to produce the desired effects (Hicks, 1991:41).

Empowering. The charismatic emphasized the followers' personal worth and builds their confidence by empowering the followers (Berlew, 1974:28).

Exceptionally Trustworthy. Followers attribute charisma under this parameter in identifying the charismatic by their selfless acts (Hicks, 1991:43).

Exhibits a Strong Need for Power. The charismatic dominates the situation and followers alike (House, 1977).

Exhibits a Strong Need to Influence. The charismatic seeks to exercise control (House, 1977).

Forthright. The charismatic leader is outspoken so that organizational members understand the charismatic's vision (Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975).

Generates a Competitive Environment. The charismatic is personally competitive and fosters organizational competition (Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975).

Highly Devoted. "Charisma is attributed to a leader who demonstrates a clear purpose anchored in a firm belief that the cause is just" (Hicks, 1991:45).

Highly Respected. The charismatic leader is respected by his followers (Bass, 1985).

Image Conscious. The charismatic puts a high value on his appearance. Trice and Beyer (1986) mentioned the charismatics need to appear successful.

Independent. The charismatics' support for his beliefs and actions come from within and not from the group (Hicks, 1991:47).

Intolerant of Differing Opinions. The charismatic appears rigid which is due in part to the previously mentioned independence, and due to inner-direction (Hicks, 1991:47).

Morally Upright. Charisma will be attributed to the leader who is seen as morally fit (Hicks, 1991:47).

Perceptive. The charismatic understands current limitations and resources (Conger & Kanungo, 1987:643). Also, the charismatic understands the "needs, values, and hopes of their followers" (Bass, 1985:46).

Persuasive. Conger and Kanungo (1987) and Bass (1985) maintain that the charismatic possesses persuasive skills that enables him to persuade followers to heed his viewpoint.

Provides a Challenging Environment. "Bass (1985) and Berlew (1974) report organization members feel challenged by a charismatic leader" (Hicks, 1991:48).

Provides Relevance and Meaning. "The emphasis here is that the charismatic leader links the followers' value system to the tasks they perform" (Hicks, 1991:49).

Reckless. "The charismatic leader may choose risky or dangerous paths to accomplish his ends" (Hicks, 1991:49).

Relationship-oriented. The followers attribute charisma because the charismatic places high value on the relationships the followers value and emphasizes familial bonds (Hicks, 1991:50).

Self-confident. The charismatic leader must appear self-confident for his followers to attribute charisma (Hicks, 1991:50).

Sets an example. The outstanding character of the leader consists of a strong people-orientation and a strong mission-orientation, both of which are attractive to the followers (House, 1977:195).

Similar to Group Members. There must be a similarity between the leader and the led (Hicks, 1991:51).

Successful. Followers watch for successes and use them as a bench mark for the presence of charisma in their leaders (Hicks, 1991:51).

Team-builder. The charismatic brings about high levels of cohesiveness and communication that bring about goal attainment (Hicks, 1991:51).

Technically Proficient. "Proficiency enables the leader to deal effectively with the demands of the situation he faces" (Hicks, 1991:51).

Tenacious. The charismatic may persist in a failing purpose or ineffective program (Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975: 244-245).

Trusted. "This parameter implies that it is not enough for a leader to be worthy of trust; the organization members must be prepared to trust" (Hicks, 1991:52).

Unaffected by Crises. Conger and Kanungo (1987) assert that the charismatic leader exhibits confidence even in the toughest times.

Unconventional. "The charismatic leader sees the problems, contexts, and solutions differently than others do" (Hicks, 1991:52).

Uses Rewards More Than Punishments. The followers attribute charisma because the leader uses rewards over punishments (Hicks, 1991:53).

Visionary. The charismatic leader has a vision of the future that followers see as viable and desirable (Hicks, 1991:53).

Willing to Risk Self. "Charismatic leadership is marked by a willingness to sacrifice self for the sake of the cause" (Hicks, 1991:53).

The analysis method we chose to replicate is the use of correlations, because "it is just as likely to have identified valid charismatic parameters" (Hicks, 1991:172). Hicks found "clearer associations among the parameters using correlations. This method made it easier to establish semantic sense" (Hicks, 1991:172-173). Hicks also felt that the analysis using correlations was more focused and he was able to identify greater cognitive and semantic cohesion (Hicks, 1991:173). Table 2 on the following page summarizes the 37 parameters and the 11 related factors.

Additionally, the following two parameters were taken from an article by Robert House and Jane Howell (1992:88-89).

Nurturing. House and Howell cite Ross and Offerman's 1990 study of 40 U.S. Air Force Academy commissioned officers in their mid-careers when stating "charisma is positively related to the personality traits of feminism and nurturance" (1992:88). Furthermore, charismatic leaders tend to be nurturing and sensitive to follower's social and physical needs (House and Howell, 1992:89).

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE 37 PARAMETERS
AND THE 11 FACTORS (Hicks, 1991:174-175)

37 Original Theorized Parameters	FEED INTO:	11 Factors Derived Using Pearson PMC of Correlation
Highly respected Trusted Sets an example Trustworthy Moral	----->	Respect, trust, and credibility
Empowering Concerned for others Team-builder Uses rewards vs. punishes	----->	Empowering through respect, trust, consideration and affiliation
Provides relevance and meaning Persuasive Perceptive Self-confident Unaffected by Crises	----->	Displays confidence, insight, and composure, all of these combining to aid the leader's persuasiveness
Effective Successful Technically proficient Highly devoted Willing to risk self	----->	Extremely effective in the work place because of commitment and skill
Provides a challenging environment Catalyst for change Visionary Unconventional	----->	Creates an excitement for and commitment to change in the organization
Similar to group members Relationship-oriented	----->	A kinship felt among group members with the leader
Intolerant of differing opinions Distant Tenacious	----->	A tenacity toward one viewpoint to the exclusion of others

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE 37 PARAMETERS AND THE 11
FACTORS (Continued)

37 Original Theorized Parameters	FEED INTO:	11 Factors Derived Using Pearson PMC of Correlation
Arrogant Exhibits need for power Exh'ts need for influence Generates competition Assertive	----->	A dominating person willing to use power and influence to achieve goals
Reckless Independent Unconventional	----->	Behaves with independence and initiative to the exclusion of group input
Image conscious	----->	Image conscious
Forthright	----->	Forthright or blunt

Pragmatic. House and Howell again cite Ross and Offerman's 1990 study in saying that charismatic leaders are more pragmatic than their non-charismatic counterparts (1992:88).

Now that we have outlined a few of the parameters which can be used to describe charismatic leaders, how do we identify charismatics?

Identifying Charismatics

Identifying charismatics can be done through a variety of psychoanalytical and sociological tests. "Charismatic leaders may be identified and selected on the basis of

psychological assessments" (House and Howell, 1992:102). Some of these tests are surveys which employ semantic differentials, and critical incidents. Critical incidents ask subjects to summarize a certain behavior which someone might possess (Flanagan, 1954:327). Word counts are then used to identify common choices among the subjects (Flanagan, 1954:328). Bass states that "direct reports, peers, and/or supervisors can be asked to describe the manager's current leadership with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire" (1990:26). Tests such as these should be given within the organization to the individual, subordinates, peers, and superiors in an attempt to identify individual's transformational behavior (Bass, 1990:26). Also, Howell demonstrated in a laboratory environment that people can be trained to exhibit charismatic behavior (1989:265). Identifying people with charismatic possibilities should take place at the earliest possible time because an individual's performance at one level is generally indicative of their performance at the next (Bass, 1990:26).

Training Charismatics

Now that possible charismatics are identified they must be trained to accent their potential. Conger and Kanungo (1988), Bass (1990), Berlew (1974), and Zaleznik and Kets de

Vries (1975) all call for training leaders in charismatic leadership techniques. In fact Bass states:

Transformational leadership can be learned, and it can--and should--be the subject of management training and development. Research has shown that leaders at all levels can be trained to be charismatic in both verbal and nonverbal performance. (1990:27)

Individuals can be trained to exhibit charismatic traits but there is a lack of research demonstrating that people have been trained to be charismatic. Furthermore, Conger and Kanungo (1988:645) call for research to confirm their hypotheses of "the behavioral and dispositional attributes of charismatic leaders." Hicks (1991:193) answers the call and delineates his 37 parameters of charisma in organizations and discovers a correlation between these attributes and the way members of organizations perceive leaders they call "charismatic." Thus, we have a wealth of characteristics attributed to charismatic leaders. The goal is to form an organization that:

Through its leadership, can create an environment which has a strengthening effect on its members, and leads to the belief that, collectively, through the organization, they can determine or change the course of events. (Berlew, 1974:29)

Summary

History has shown us that there are moments made for charismatic leaders and research points to the superior performance of charismatic leaders. Leaders such as Mahatma

Ghandi, Lee Iacocca, and General George Patton are examples of superior performance and the profound influence of charismatic leaders. Such situations as a social movement, a near bankrupt business, and the battlefield emphasize the need for order and the need for charismatic leadership. Also, there are profound differences in the capabilities and goals of leaders and managers which were briefly differentiated. Attributes of charismatic leaders can be distilled from literature on the subject and research of the past ten years. These attributes can be used to identify possible charismatics and to create training programs so the USAF and other organizations can foster leadership with a vision.

III. Methodology

Introduction

This chapter will review the research objectives, outline the research methodology and design, give an overview of the subjects involved, review the changes to Hicks' (1991) original 11 factors and three other factors, and assess the methodological assumptions and limitations.

The research methodology includes our rationale for stating our study is a descriptive research effort. The research design section reviews the methods for building our instrument. The subjects section describes the elements of the population and sample, and the data collection efforts. The next section highlights the changes made to Hicks' 11 factors and the introduction of three other factors. Finally, this chapter will discuss assumptions and limitations of our methodology.

Restatement of Research Objectives

The first objective is to try to replicate Hicks' (1991) findings on the eleven factors derived from grouping his 37 parameters, using factor analysis. This chapter reviews how these factors were measured and how they will be treated again.

The second objective is to improve the validity and reliability of some of the factors by redefining some of the semantic differentials Hicks (1991) used to describe the original parameters. The strength of these factors may be enhanced by using more valid semantic differentials to describe certain parameters which feed into them. Chapter II, Literature Review, discussed these factors and semantic differentials, and this chapter will review how these semantic differentials were redefined.

The third objective is to extricate new parameters of charismatic leadership from research of the literature and to apply the method of semantic differential descriptions to discover their ability to attribute charismatic leadership. Specifically, we built new semantic differentials to describe the characteristics of *nurturing* and *pragmatic* as described by Ross and Offerman and reported by House and Howell (1992:88).

The fourth objective is to determine if the characteristics people attribute to charisma are different for different demographic groups. First, we will test if the attribution of charisma is different based on gender. Second, we will test if the attribution of charisma is different when people had someone in mind when completing the instrument. The reader will find a discussion of the methods used and conclusions of this portion of the research in Chapter III, Methodology, and Chapter IV, Findings.

Research Methodology

As Hicks (1991) points out, "the study of charisma in organizational settings is still in its infancy organizational scientists still know little, quantitatively of the nature of charismatic leadership" (56-57). Echoing Hicks (1991), it was therefore appropriate to design this research as a descriptive study.

Descriptive research is used "to describe systematically the facts and characteristics of a given population or area of interest, factually and accurately" (Isaac and Michael, 1982:46). Our primary task was to improve the results of Hicks' (1991) study. Additionally, we attempted to verify new parameters to describe charismatic leaders. We also want to find out how particular populations, e.g., females, attribute charisma to leaders. All of these tasks are descriptive in nature; therefore, it is appropriate to approach our research as a descriptive study.

Research Design

As Isaac and Michael (1981) delineate, another purpose of descriptive research is "to collect detailed factual information that describes existing phenomena" (1982:46). Hicks (1991) has already extricated his 37 theorized parameters and developed an instrument to test whether they

"coincide with an attribution theory perspective" (1991:57). His analysis led him to divide the original 37 parameters into 11 factors which we used as the basis for constructing our instrument. Hicks states that, "I was able to find greater cognitive and semantic cohesion when only five or six of the original parameters were grouped together" (1991:173). These are the groupings he used to form his 11 factors, and accordingly, we used them as the basis for our study. First, we will give an overview of our prime instrument.

The Semantic Differential. The semantic differential is used to measure meaning among word pairs. This method was developed by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957). The complete range of meaning for a concept is considered the semantic space (Osgood et al., 1957:31). There are various factors or dimensions which help define the semantic space of a concept (Osgood et al., 1957:31).

Initially, the dimensions used to evaluate a concept by subjects must be determined (Babbie, 1986:376). "Then you need to find two opposite terms, representing the polar extremes along each dimension" (Babbie, 1986:376). These polar opposites should be "linear" and "pass through the origin" (Osgood et al., 1957:79).

These pairs should be opposites, but also one should have a positive connotation and the other a negative connotation. Hicks (1991) uses the example pair *handsome-ugly* as a good example (1991:70). These words are opposites

with one having a positive connotation and the other a negative one. Rugged-delicate is not a good pair of opposites since both adjectives have positive connotations. This means they are not linear opposites.

The pairs of polar opposites are combined in an instrument which uses Likert-like scaling. This gives the subject the ability to agree or disagree with the polar extremes (Babbie, 1986:376). "Factor analysis of the completed instruments allows the researcher to determine those dimensions that contribute the greatest amount to the concept's meaning" (Hicks, 1991:71). "The purpose of...factoring work is to discover the 'natural' dimensionality of the semantic space, the system of factors which together account for the variance in meaningful judgments..." (Osgood et al., 1957:31).

"Both the Likert and semantic differential formats have a greater rigor and structure than other question formats. These formats produce data suitable to both indexing and scaling" (Babbie, 1986:376-377). Hicks states:

This makes its use attractive for descriptive research. Additionally, as stated before, organizational scientists are still theorizing the parameters of charismatic leadership. As noted, the semantic differential is well-suited to defining a concept. In this case the concept is "charismatic leader." The parameters extracted from the theoretical literature are ideal to serve as the dimensions to be tested. (1991:71)

Hicks goes on to say that factor analysis should "provide an empirical basis" for evaluating the theorized parameters differentiating power (1991:71).

We used Hicks' factors to build our instrument. Our instrument is a variation of the kind used by Hicks (1991). He chose the critical incident and semantic differential techniques which he describes thoroughly (Hicks, 1991:68-80). We departed from the use of the critical incident technique, wherein subjects are asked to write about a specific incident that happened to the subject in relation to someone they perceived as a charismatic leader. Our instrument asks the subject to think about a specific person whom they have dealt with who made them want to excel. We then ask them to think of a leader with whom they have experience who did not inspire excellence, even though that person may not have been a bad leader or person. The differences between our instrument and Hicks' are that we don't require the subject to write his recollection of a specific incident and that we encourage the subjects to think of the leader in a slightly different light before they respond to the semantic differentials.

We depart from Hicks' methodology in another manner as well. He attempted to define his parameters in terms of strict semantic differentials. He attempted to define his parameters with semantic differentials that were polar opposites represented by linear scales and that pass through the origin (Hicks, 1991:70, Osgood et al., 1957:79). We noticed that some of Hicks' semantic differentials described merely good and bad leaders rather than charismatic and non-charismatic leaders. We felt this might be a product of the

polar opposite construction of the semantic differential and the subject's natural tendency to think of leaders in good and bad terms instead of charismatic and non-charismatic. We changed some of Hicks' pairings in the hope of changing the good and bad semantic differentials to sets which more clearly define charismatic and non-charismatic. These changes are delineated later in this chapter.

In addition to the semantic differentials from the 11 factors, and the changes we made to them, we also created semantic differentials to describe pragmatic and nurturing, two new traits we garnered from recent literature (Offerman, 1992, House & Howell, 1992). In addition, we also included semantic differentials describing the willingness to risk self because it tends to pervade the charismatic literature.

We used a separate random number generator from a software package, Statistix 4.0, to determine the order of the semantic differentials in the charismatic and non-charismatic portions of the survey. A random number generator was also used to determine which side the word associated with the factor it is trying to describe appeared in the scale. We used the fifth number to determine the side: if it was odd, the descriptive word went on the left, and if it were even, the descriptive word went on the right. The positively connoted word is the one associated with the attribution of charisma. Isaac and Michael point to the importance of this random placement in constructing semantic differentials. As they say, "arrange the polar adjective

pairs so that the favorable, potent, or active end of the scale is randomly placed in a right or left position to avoid position habits in the response pattern" (Isaac and Michael, 1981:146). Although we do not use semantic differentials as they are strictly defined by Isaac and Michael, it is still important to avoid the "position habits" of subject responses by random placement of the positively connotated word in the new instrument (1981:146).

We decided to use Hicks' (1991) Likert-like scale to allow subjects the ability to classify the leaders they were thinking of along a range concerning each attribute. This also allows each subject to categorize their chosen leader as not possessing either side of a given attribute by choosing the middle of the scale. It is impossible to say whether the subject's thoughts coincide with Calder's (1977) model as mentioned in Chapter II, but the Likert Scale allows the subjects a range of responses which takes Calder's model into account.

Selection of Subjects

We limited our selection of subjects to those of college age or older. Like Hicks, we assume that this gives the subjects an adequate base of experience from which they can form an image of a charismatic leader (Hicks, 1991:81). We also, like Hicks (1991), make no attempt to make this a

multi-cultural instrument. This limits the subjects to English speaking "Western or American" members of society. These members must also have come into contact with people in the situations described in the instrument; again as Hicks asserts, in organizations (Hicks, 1991:81). Given these limitations, the reader can understand the following definitions.

Population. College age or older, English-speaking "members of culturally western organizations" (Hicks, 1991:82).

Sample. The sample consists of members of the student body of the Air Force Institute of Technology. This sample represents college graduates with a minimum of a bachelors degree. All are English-speaking although for some English is a second language. We also sampled members of a Lions Club. All members are college age or older and English-speaking. Military and civilian acquaintances of the authors were also sampled. They are college age or older and English-speaking.

Sampling Unit. One person who meets the previously established criteria.

Sampling Frame. We looked for volunteers who met the established criteria. Surveys were distributed to students and mail surveys were sent to participants at other locations. In each case, the subject was introduced, and voluntary participation was solicited.

Field Procedures. We distributed 327 copies of the instrument to students. 100 copies were sent to a representative of an adult association. He was told that it was not necessary to offer any special directions since instructions on the instrument are self-explanatory. We also sent 80 surveys to friends and family. No instructions were included. No supervision was required to fill out the survey. Participants could fill it out at their leisure. We asked the friends and family subjects to return the survey by a specified date.

We distributed 35 surveys that contained the responses for only charismatic or non-charismatic leaders. These surveys were intended as a control for the subjects who filled out both halves of the instrument. If the instrument is valid, it was expected that the results of these control surveys would be the same as from the full surveys.

Data Collection, Recording, Processing, and Analysis.

Each person recorded their responses directly on the survey. Each copy of the survey contained 140 possible responses, and each set of 140 answers constituted a record.

To attempt to duplicate Hicks' results, we used Cronbach's coefficient alpha to measure the internal consistency reliability for each word pair scale (Hicks, 1991:84). We performed this analysis to attempt to strengthen and support Hicks' findings, since our scales are taken from his factor analysis. The reader should see Hicks for a detailed rationale for using factor analysis to

determine which characteristics lead to the attribution of charismatic leadership (Hicks, 1991:85-87).

We used Cronbach's alpha to determine the internal validity of our scales. We ran a one way analysis of variance with a Bonferroni procedure. The Bonferroni procedure is used to make multiple comparisons of a set of treatment means (McClave & Benson, 1991:873). The Bonferroni procedure is a conservative approach to multiple comparisons (McClave & Benson, 1991:873), and this is why we chose to use it. We made comparisons based on gender, and whether or not the subjects had a particular leader in mind as they filled out each section of the survey. We tested to see if there was a difference in the way those who had a specific person in mind as they filled out the survey and those who didn't attributed charismatic and non-charismatic leadership.

Hicks' Semantic Differentials

In Factor 5 (Excitement), we changed *innovative - unchanging* to *seeks new ideas - unchanging*. We felt innovative did not fully measure the range of activity that might be attributed to a charismatic leader and that someone who sought new ideas could be perceived as charismatic.

Factor 6 (Member): *representative - non-representative* changed to *representative of group - non-representative of*

group. This change more clearly reflects the idea of "kinship felt among group members with the leader" expressed by Hicks (1991:174).

Factor 6 (Member): *shares group goals - has dissimilar goals* changed to *shares group goals - undermines group goals*. We felt that undermines group goals presented more of a contrast as a non-charismatic trait. If subjects are to attribute *shares group goals* to a charismatic leader, they might be distracted by the semantic differential *has dissimilar goals*, since they might recognize some dissimilar goals while the overall propensity is to share group goals. The theoretical trait is similar to group members which could be stretched to include those with dissimilar goals. The original word pair had a correlation of .438156.

Factor 7 (Tenacity): *prejudiced - open-minded* changed to *not open-minded - open-minded*. Someone who is not open-minded is not necessarily prejudiced. A respondent might be reluctant to attribute prejudice to someone who is not open-minded but would have no trouble attributing the characteristic of not having an open mind. The original measure including prejudice was a case of good - bad leader measurement.

Factor 10 (Image Conscious): *values appearance - authentic* changed to *values appearance - sloppy*. The connotation that someone who values their appearance is somehow fake does not hold for the attribution of charisma. A charismatic person could have both of the original

attributes. This turns values appearance into a negative characteristic which does not follow from Hicks' idea that the charismatic leader is "very protective of his image" (1991:45). It is also not a good way to measure whether someone attributes charisma to someone who values his appearance when the choice is whether that person is authentic or not. The choice of sloppy comes closer to measuring this attribute without good - bad connotations.

Factor 10 (Image Conscious): puts up a front - genuine changed to false - genuine. The more general "false" gives the subject more to attribute to the non-charismatic leader and to contrast against the charismatic leader. This may reflect a more accurate measure of an attribution of genuineness to the charismatic leader as someone who is forthright or blunt. These characteristics allow the charismatic leader "to say what he must to ensure each organization member understands the vision and plan and his or her part in it (Hicks, 1991:44).

Factor 11 (Forthright): blunt - discreet changed to indiscreet - discreet. We felt blunt - discreet was not an accurate measure of the opposite sides of anything. Changing this semantic differential more accurately reflects the characteristic we want to measure. Blunt - discreet only had a correlation of .366754 (Hicks, 1991:115).

Factor 11 (Forthright): forthright - political changed to sincere - political. Forthright does not provide a broad

enough measure of charismatic attribution. This word pair had only a .395660 correlation in Hicks' measurement (1991:115). Sincere provides a broader term to allow the subject to attribute "the leader's conviction that his vision and plan are best for the organization" (Hicks, 1991:44), and to ensure that everyone in the organization understands that vision (Hicks, 1991:44). The political person on the other hand would not care to let everyone know, and might hide his intentions. Therefore, he would not be sincere.

Factor 11 (Forthright): *outspoken - tactful* changed to *blunt - tactful*. The semantic differential *blunt - tactful* is closer to polar opposites in representing the semantic space of the factor *forthright*.

Two New Parameters. We also created two new parameters which we measured to show if they are used to attribute charisma: nurturing and pragmatic. The semantic differentials we used to describe nurturing are *kind - mean*, *providing - taking*, *mentoring - leaves training to individual*, *supportive - not supportive*, and *retards personal growth - encourages personal growth*.

We described pragmatic with the following semantic differentials: *practical - impractical*, *opportunistic - reluctant*, *realist - acts on emotion*, *seeks expeditious methods - uses haphazard methods*, and *pragmatic - unreasonable*. In each case, we used a thesaurus to find synonyms and antonyms for pragmatic and nurturing.

We also wanted to take a closer look at the theorized charismatic parameter of willing to risk self. Hicks' found the highest correlation for this parameter with the word pair *self-sacrificing - self-preserving* at .526526 (1991:145). In order to try to enhance this view of attributed self-sacrifice, we added three semantic differentials to *willing to risk self - not willing to risk self*. They are *willing to sacrifice self for ideals - unwilling to sacrifice self for ideals, cause oriented - career oriented, and willing to risk job - not willing to risk job*. These semantic differentials will more accurately reflect the fact that, "the charismatic's devotion to the goal or vision will cause him to act in ways that appear to followers to threaten the leader's position or person" (Hicks, 1991:53). Our goal is to more accurately measure this theorized parameter of charisma.

Methodological Assumptions and Limitations

The assumptions we start with are many of the assumptions that Hicks had to deal with (Hicks, 1991:88-89). Like Hicks, we assume that all the theorists "share essentially the same idea when they say 'charismatic leadership'" (Hicks, 1991:88). Although, Hicks assumes that the concept of charismatic leadership "has been affirmed for each person by at least one experience" (Hicks,

1991:89), we ask each participant to indicate whether he had someone in mind as he filled out each section of the survey.

Furthermore, along with Hicks (1991:89), we assumed that there is a difference in the military and civilian attribution of charisma. We explain our investigation of this assumption and our findings further in Chapter IV, Findings. In addition, the fact that the factors and scales are open to interpretation is another limitation that is the same as in Hicks' methodology (1991:89).

Finally, we assume that the changes we have made to the semantic differential technique, and the replacement of the critical incident with merely thinking of the type of leader stipulated will more accurately measure the attribution of charisma and non-charisma. The changes we made were designed to get a more accurate measure of the attribution of charisma rather than the good - bad attribution we feel Hicks' instrument led to.

In addition to the assumptions made in our methodology, there are factors which pose threats to internal and external validity. Campbell and Stanley postulate eight threats to internal validity and four to external validity (1963:5-6). Hicks cites these threats and addresses those he feels affect his study (1991:90-92).

Subject history is the first threat to internal validity from Campbell and Stanley (1963:90) that Hicks addresses (1991:90). Hicks combats this problem with the critical incident method. If the subject obviously "could

not recall dealing with a charismatic leader" (Hicks, 1991:90), he discarded that subject's responses. We counter this threat by asking each subject whether he had a particular person in mind as they filled out the respective sections on charismatic and non-charismatic leaders. We also took this a step further by comparing the responses of those who did have someone in mind and those who didn't. The reader will find an analysis of this comparison in Chapter IV, Findings.

The second threat that Hicks addresses (1991:91) is the maturation process (Campbell and Stanley, 1963:5). Hicks worried about the fact that his subjects might lose interest in his instrument because of its 215 scales. We reduced the length by concentrating on his reduced factors, and our instrument contained only 138 scales. We felt this prevented problems with boredom with the instrument.

Instrumentation is another threat that might affect our study (Campbell and Stanley, 1963:5). Hicks was concerned that the transcription process of his 215 scales might produce errors so he limited his data entry sessions to 45-50 minutes (Hicks, 1991:91). The reduced number of scales helped somewhat in this regard but we found that the same type of fatigue set in at about the same time as Hicks. However, we did find that working as a team relieved the tediousness of this task, and we opted for transcribing the data as a twosome whenever possible.

Another area in which instrumentation could threaten our internal validity is the fact "changes in the observers or scorers used may produce changes in the obtained measurements" (Campbell and Stanley, 1963:5). Our goal was to reproduce many of Hicks' findings, but we did design some changes which we hoped would improve the correlation of some factors. We distributed some surveys with only charismatic leader responses and some with only non-charismatic leader responses to prove the validity of our instrument. We felt that if we could reproduce Hicks' results and our own instruments were found valid by this method, this problem of internal validity would be countered.

The last threat to internal validity that affects our thesis is selection-interaction between selection and history (Campbell and Stanley, 1963:5). Hicks felt he could not counteract this effect because some may have chosen not to participate in the survey because they could not remember an incident of interacting with a charismatic leader. Like Hicks, we had no way to attack this weakness, and we have no way to measure its effects (Hicks, 1991:91).

The only threat to external validity we will discuss is Campbell and Stanley's "interaction effects of biases and the experimental variable" (1963:6). Hicks felt that "the concept of charisma is a western, learned one slightly flavored by the nature of one's vocation" (1991:92). We share this belief and have increased the number of non-military subjects. Therefore, we believe our sample is more

representative than Hicks' and, like he, we believe our methodology overcomes the external validity threat presented by the selection process.

IV. Findings

This chapter presents the demographic data and research findings of the research. Wherever possible the information will be presented in tabular form. We will begin with a discussion of response rates and demographic data and continue with the analysis of the research.

Response Rates and Demographic Data

Table 3 summarizes the response rates from the various groups we administered the survey to.

TABLE 3
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA AND RESPONSE RATES

Group	Sent Out	Returned	Percent	Cum. %
AFIT Students	327	225	68	68
Social Club	100	46	46	63
Friends & Family	80	30	37.5	59.4
Totals	507	301	59.4	59.4

Of the 301 surveys returned, 2 were unusable. There were a total of 299 usable responses.

Demographic Data. As in Hicks (1991), our goal was to poll subjects of college age or older. Our demographic data indicate the youngest person who responded to the survey was 23, which fits our criteria. The mean age of those who responded was slightly higher than Hicks' 33.22 years. All but 10.7 percent of the subjects have a four-year college education or higher, which makes our sample a highly educated group. Tables 4-7 summarize the demographic information provided by the subjects.

TABLE 4
AGE DEMOGRAPHICS

Age	Mean 35.89	St. Dev. 11.05	Min. 23	Max. 73	No Res. 28
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TABLE 5
EDUCATION DEMOGRAPHICS

Highest Education Completed	Number	Percent
Grade School	1	.4
High School	15	5.5
Technical/Assoc. Degree	13	4.8
College Degree	180	65.9
Masters Degree	35	12.8
Masters Degree Plus	29	10.6
Did Not Respond	26	-

TABLE 6
RACE DEMOGRAPHICS

Race	Number	Percent
Native American	2	.7
Asian/Pacific Islander	10	3.7
Black	5	1.8
Hispanic	7	2.6
White	243	89.7
Other	4	1.3
Did Not Respond	28	-

TABLE 7
GENDER DEMOGRAPHICS

Gender	Number	Percent
Female	27	28.0
Male	195	72.0
Did Not Respond	28	-

The percentages indicated are of those who responded to each question. Non-respondents were not included for this purpose.

Reliability Procedures

We measured the reliability of each set of semantic differentials as they related to the fourteen factors mentioned in Chapter III, Methodology. We used Cronbach's alpha, and compared the reliability coefficient to Hicks'

(1991) results to attempt to validate his results. If the reliability of a given factor could be improved by removing a word pair, we did so. In this manner, we hoped to improve each theorized factor. We will present the findings for each factor and compare it to Hicks' findings. We will also indicate whether our changes to Hicks' scales improved the reliability of his factors. We discussed these changes in Chapter III, Methodology.

Findings For Each Factor

We will present tables containing Cronbach's alpha for each semantic set associated with each factor. The first set of statistics will contain the total alpha for the factor, the correlation of each word pair set and the alpha if certain scales are removed. We show the final alpha and the scales retained to describe each factor.

Factor 1 - Respect

Hicks' alpha for this factor which included these exact scales was 0.9428 (Hicks, 1991:200). If we eliminate the counted on - questioned semantic differential, we raise the reliability to 0.864072.

TABLE 8
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = RESPECT

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= .852156
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
trusted - mistrusted	0.661044	0.822392
trustworthy - untrustworthy	0.748402	0.798980
respected - disreputable	0.677556	0.818040
credible - not credible	0.751693	0.798079
counted on - questioned	0.490848	0.865322

TABLE 9
FINAL CRONBACH'S ALPHA AND RETAINED PAIRS
FACTOR = RESPECT

Overall Alpha for Standardized Variables: 0.864072
Scales Retained (4): trusted - mistrusted, trustworthy - untrustworthy, respected disreputable, credible - not credible

This result corroborates Hicks' finding that "this factor has strong evaluative properties" (Hicks, 1991:12). We believe this factor is a strong indicator of charismatic attribution even when the word pair *counted on - questioned* is included, and that our results confirm Hicks' findings.

Factor 2 - Empowering

TABLE 10
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = EMPOWERING

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.822672
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
attentive to other's needs - disinterested in other's needs	0.694533	0.764328
builds confidence - undermines confidence	0.514340	0.816588
concerned for others - unconcerned for others	0.630905	0.783311
team-builder - factionist	0.556824	0.804682
considerate - inconsiderate	0.689528	0.765843

Hicks' (1991) found a correlation of 0.8890 for these five semantic differential scales. Our findings support his statement that this factor shows subjects find charismatic leaders empower others "through respect, trust, consideration and affiliation" (Hicks, 1991:174). We did not change any of these scales, nor did we decide to delete any to improve the correlation. So the final Cronbach's alpha statistics for this factor remain the same as in Table 9.

Factor 3 - Confidence

TABLE 11
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = CONFIDENCE

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.690639
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
perceptive - clueless	0.488740	0.621943
illuminates - clouds	0.504193	0.615099
convincing - unconvincing	0.392772	0.663108
relevant - irrelevant	0.406985	0.657155
composed - easily ruffled	0.434697	0.645405

Hicks' (1991) alpha for this factor was .8065. We did not remove any semantic differential scales since that would not improve the correlation. These are the five scales that Hicks (1991) used, and even though our findings show a lower correlation, the difference is only 0.1159. Therefore, we believe this is a good measure for charismatic attribution; their followers believe charismatic leaders display "confidence, insight, and composure, all of these combining to aid the leaders persuasiveness" (Hicks, 1991:174).

Factor 4 - Commitment

TABLE 12
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = COMMITMENT (EFFECTIVE)

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.768579
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
proficient - inept	0.428584	0.763531
succeeds - fails	0.514275	0.734882
gets results - spins wheels	0.474133	0.748466
achieves - flounders	0.671091	0.678983
makes a difference - ineffectual	0.616791	0.698858

Hicks' (1991) alpha for this factor was 0.8765. We retained all five of his semantic differential scales since there would be no gain in deleting any of them. The difference in our correlation and his is 0.1079. We believe our correlation is still significant and indicates that followers attribute the characteristic of effectiveness to leaders they believe are charismatic. They see these leaders as "extremely effective in the workplace because of commitment and skill" (Hicks, 1991:174).

Factor 5 - Excitement

TABLE 13
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = EXCITEMENT

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.670364
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
seeks new ideas - unchanging	0.319353	0.664872
revolutionary - maintainer	0.285237	0.679231
stirring - repressive	0.408320	0.626012
innovative - routine	0.529505	0.569679
creative - unimaginative	0.597470	0.536309

If we remove the semantic differential *maintainer - revolutionary* the alpha improves to 0.682130. This is not significant enough to make this change. This factor includes one set of differentials which we had changed in the hope of improving Hicks' (1991) results: we changed *innovative - unchanging* to *seeks new ideas - unchanging*. Hicks' (1991) alpha for this factor was 0.8165. Our alpha was lower, so obviously we did not improve Hicks' findings. The difference of 0.1461 suggests that this factor still reveals that followers believe charismatic leaders create "an excitement for and commitment to change in the organization" (Hicks, 1991:174).

Factor 6 - Member

TABLE 14
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = MEMBER

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.705422
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
representative of group - nonrepresentative of group	0.480069	0.649218
shares group goals - undermines group goals	0.500798	0.640499
member - non-member	0.526075	0.629729
people oriented - isolationist	0.423613	0.672450
like other members - unlike other members	0.380436	0.689717

Hicks' (1991) alpha for this factor was 0.7174. Our results almost duplicate his, which suggests this is a strong indicator of the attribution of a "kinship felt among group members with the leader" (Hicks, 1991:174). Moreover, the two scales we changed did not seem to help or hinder the validity of this factor; we changed *shares group goals - has dissimilar goals* to *shares group goals - undermines group goals* and *representative - nonrepresentative* to *representative of group - nonrepresentative of group*.

Factor 7 - Tenacity

TABLE 15
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = TENACITY

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.771234
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
receptive - unreceptive	0.549008	0.727107
approachable - remote	0.622191	0.701376
flexible - obstinate	0.536753	0.731320
intimate - removed	0.361885	0.788549
open-minded - not open-minded	0.656441	0.688994

Hicks' (1991) alpha for this factor was 0.8621. Our alpha validates his five original scales, and points to tenacity as a measure of the attribution of charisma. Charismatic leaders are attributed "a tenacity toward one viewpoint to the exclusion of others" (Hicks, 1991:174).

Factor 8 - Dominating

Hicks' (1991) findings included an alpha of 0.8289 for this factor. We did not change any of his original semantic scales. Furthermore, the correlation of these scales would not improve if we removed any of them. Our findings closely resemble Hicks' and validate his theorized factor which shows followers looking at charismatic leaders as dominating

and "willing to use power and influence to achieve goals"
(Hicks, 1991:174).

TABLE 16
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = DOMINATING

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.823722
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
demure - arrogant	0.598681	0.794356
submissive - overpowering	0.637240	0.783150
retiring - pushy	0.590425	0.796728
equalitarian - domineering	0.591987	0.796280
modest - egotistical	0.669877	0.773499

Factor 9 - Independent

Our alpha compares favorably with Hicks' (1991) 0.7374 for the same factor. We changed none of his original semantic scales and we could not improve our correlation by removing any word pairs. These findings validate this factor as an attribute of charismatic leaders. As Hicks puts it, the charismatic leader "behaves with independence and initiative to the exclusion of group input" (1991:175).

TABLE 17
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = INDEPENDENT

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.774941
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
prudent - rash	0.513440	0.744964
safe - dangerous	0.584911	0.720647
circumspect - reckless	0.532038	0.738723
traditional - unorthodox	0.520218	0.742696
typical - radical	0.585868	0.720315

Factor 10 - Image Conscious

TABLE 18
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = IMAGE CONSCIOUS

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.406482
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
unconcerned for his/her image - image conscious	0.346477	0.201092
sloppy - values appearance	0.426734	0.103449
false - genuine	-0.170533	0.697042
unconcerned with reputation - concerned with reputation	0.428349	0.101418
unpretentious - pretentious	Error	Error

Hicks' (1991) alpha for this factor was 0.6724. We changed one of Hicks' (1991) original semantic scales: puts up

front - genuine was changed to *false - genuine*. This was the only scale that had a negative correlation for this factor in our findings. If we omit this scale, the alpha is changed to 0.700247, which is much closer to Hicks' (1991) 0.6724. If we remove the *false - genuine* scale, we validate Hicks' findings with the semantic differentials that remain, all of which are his original scales. However, in creating and editing the survey instrument we omitted the semantic differential *unpretentious - pretentious* from this factor.

TABLE 19
FINAL CRONBACH'S ALPHA AND RETAINED PAIRS
FACTOR = IMAGE CONSCIOUS

Overall Alpha for Standardized Variables: 0.700247
Scales Retained (3): unconcerned with his/her image - image conscious, sloppy - values - appearance, unconcerned with reputation - concerned with reputation

Factor 11 - Forthright

Hicks' (1991) original alpha for this factor was 0.6068. We changed three of Hicks' (1991) original scales: *blunt - discreet* was changed to *indiscreet - discreet*, *forthright - political* was changed to *sincere - political*, and *outspoken - tactful* was changed to *blunt - tactful*. These changes may explain the difference in our scale and Hicks'. We removed the *political - sincere* scale which

raised our alpha to 0.519568. We further raised our alpha to 0.658512 by removing the *ambiguous - direct* scale. At this alpha, we compare favorably with Hicks and validate some measure of the attribute "forthright" as a characteristic followers attribute to charisma.

TABLE 20
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = FORTHRIGHT

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.330634
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
tactful - blunt	0.451188	-.001793
diplomatic - frank	0.462590	-.014274
political - sincere	-.148969	0.520491
discreet - indiscreet	0.059071	0.367251
ambiguous - direct	0.094558	0.338368

TABLE 21
FINAL CRONBACH'S ALPHA AND RETAINED PAIRS
FACTOR = FORTHRIGHT

Overall Alpha for Standardized Variables: 0.658512
Scales Retained (3): tactful - blunt, diplomatic - frank, discreet - indiscreet

Factor 12 - Pragmatic

TABLE 22
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = PRAGMATIC

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.521050
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
impractical - practical	0.311528	0.450686
reluctant - opportunistic	0.023495	0.617042
acts on emotion - realist	0.411553	0.384727
unreasonable - pragmatic	0.405887	0.388651
uses haphazard methods - seeks expeditious methods	0.329200	0.439354

When we removed the semantic differential pair reluctant - opportunistic our alpha becomes 0.617042. These scales indicate that "pragmatic" could be used as a measure of the attribution of charismatic leadership.

TABLE 23
FINAL CRONBACH'S ALPHA AND RETAINED PAIRS
FACTOR = PRAGMATIC

Overall Alpha for Standardized Variables: 0.617042
Scales Retained (4): impractical - practical, acts on emotion - realist, unreasonable - pragmatic, uses haphazard methods - seeks expeditious methods

Factor 13 - Willing to Risk Self

TABLE 24
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = WILLING TO RISK SELF

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.622414
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
not willing to sacrifice self for ideals - willing to sacrifice self for ideals	0.509644	0.470488
not willing to risk self - willing to risk self	0.410888	0.546044
not willing to risk job - willing to risk job	0.403464	0.551513
career oriented - cause oriented	0.292552	0.629837

We retained all of these semantic differential scales. This alpha indicates that willing to risk self is a valid measure of the attribution of charismatic leadership.

Factor 14 - Nurturing

We retained all of these scales. This finding is a strong indication that the factor "Nurturing" is a valid measure of the attribution of charisma to charismatic leaders by their followers.

TABLE 25
CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS
FACTOR = NURTURING

Alpha for Standardized Variables		= 0.763527
Semantic Differential Scale	Correlation with total	α if item deleted
mean - kind	0.534571	0.711953
taking - providing	0.534591	0.719946
leaves training to individual - mentoring	0.361194	0.778262
not supportive - supportive	0.675265	0.668526
retards personal growth - encourages personal growth	0.569566	0.707513

Differentiation Findings

We measured the difference in the means of the responses for each semantic differential scale between the charismatic and non-charismatic sides of the survey. We used the paired t-test to compare the difference in means of the scales grouped in each factor. This test provided us with a test value-t and a p-value for each factor. The results of these tests are contained in Table 26 on the following page.

TABLE 26
PAIRED-T TEST RESULTS FOR EACH FACTOR

Factor:	T-Value	P-Value
Factor 1 - Respect	38.37	.0000
Factor 2 - Empowering	13.48	.0002
Factor 3 - Confidence	16.01	.0001
Factor 4 - Commitment	14.90	.0001
Factor 5 - Excitement	17.69	.0001
Factor 6 - Member	6.13	.0036
Factor 7 - Tenacity	15.49	.0001
Factor 8 - Dominating	1.48	.2137
Factor 9 - Independent	0.70	.5240
Factor 10 - Image Conscious	0.84	.4605
Factor 11 - Forthright	0.39	.7164
Factor 12 - Pragmatic	10.89	.0004
Factor 13 - Willing to Risk Self	6.89	.0063
Factor 14 - Nurturing	8.93	.0009

These results indicate that ten of the fourteen factors are used to differentiate between charismatic and non-charismatic leaders.

In addition, we used Bonferroni's procedure for multiple comparisons to compare the means of responses on each semantic scale according to sex and whether or not the subject had a specific person in mind as they filled out each section of the survey. We ran the tests with an alpha of 0.01. Tables 27-28 show the significant results of this test, and we discuss these findings in Chapter V, Conclusion and Recommendations.

TABLE 27
BONFERRONI MULTIPLE COMPARISON BASED ON
INDEPENDENT VARIABLE "SEX"

Semantic Differential	Fem.	Male	Sem. Pair	Fact.
not supportive - supportive	6.38	5.95	C36	14
submissive - overpowering	5.30	4.54	NC40	8
sloppy - values appearance	5.25	4.46	NC13	10
retiring - pushy	5.09	4.41	NC69	8
repressive - stirring	5.28	4.47	NC28	8
modest - egotistical	5.38	4.52	NC52	8
tactful - blunt	5.11	4.17	NC45	11
diplomatic - frank	4.63	3.77	NC49	11

Four of the semantic differentials are associated with Factor 8, Dominating. Women generally rate non-charismatic leaders higher in this factor than do men. Also, women rate two of the semantic differentials associated with Factor 11, Forthright, higher than do men.

TABLE 28
 BONFERRONI MULTIPLE COMPARISON BASED ON INDEPENDENT VARIABLE
 "NC70" - WHETHER THE RESPONDENT HAD SOMEONE IN MIND WHILE
 COMPLETING THE NON-CHARISMATIC LEADER PORTION OF THE SURVEY

Semantic Differential	Yes	No	Sem. Pair	Fact.
not credible - credible	3.98	2.96	NC44	1
untrustworthy - trustworthy	4.06	3.04	NC54	1
inconsiderate - considerate	3.82	2.77	NC39	2
easily ruffled - composed	3.88	2.58	NC10	3
clouds - illuminates	3.45	2.57	NC12	3
clueless - perceptive	4.07	2.92	NC19	3
unconvincing - convincing	3.83	2.73	NC31	3
irrelevant - relevant	3.99	2.81	NC43	3
ineffectual - makes a difference	3.83	2.50	NC3	4
spins wheels - gets results	4.06	2.92	NC17	4
flounders - achieves	4.22	3.12	NC18	4
fails - succeeds	4.69	3.42	NC56	4
inept - proficient	4.40	3.35	NC57	4
unimaginative - creative	3.55	2.38	NC25	5
repressive - stirring	3.26	2.42	NC29	5
routine - innovative	3.07	2.23	NC36	5
unchanging - seeks new ideas	3.72	2.65	NC62	5
undermines group goals - shares group goals	4.18	3.16	NC41	6
not open-minded - open minded	5.65	4.58	NC8	7

TABLE 28 (Continued)
 BONFERRONI MULTIPLE COMPARISON BASED ON INDEPENDENT VARIABLE
 "NC70" - WHETHER THE RESPONDENT HAD SOMEONE IN MIND WHILE
 COMPLETING THE NON-CHARISMATIC LEADER PORTION OF THE SURVEY

Semantic Differential	Yes	No	Sem. Pair	Fact.
unreceptive - receptive	5.23	4.33	NC64	7
flexible - obstinate	5.54	4.65	NC68	7
prudent - rash	4.54	3.54	NC11	9
circumspect - reckless	4.69	3.45	NC34	9
sloppy - values appearance	4.89	3.27	NC13	10
uses haphazard methods - seeks expeditious methods	4.46	3.35	NC9	12
impractical - practical	4.58	3.15	NC21	12
reluctant - opportunistic	4.61	3.38	NC26	12
acts on emotion - realist	4.34	3.38	NC27	12
retards personal growth - encourages personal growth	3.87	2.42	NC23	14
mean - kind	4.17	3.19	NC59	14

The results of this Bonferroni multiple comparison of the treatments of the independent variable NC70 (whether they had a person in mind when completing the non-charismatic leader instrument) are significant for the factors of Respect (1), Confidence (3), Commitment (4), Excitement (5), Tenacity (7), Pragmatic (12), and Nurturing (14). All of these factors are some of the ten in which people differentiated between charismatic and non-charismatic

leaders. The people who had someone in mind (187 respondents) while completing the survey rated the non-charismatic higher than the people who didn't have someone in mind (26 respondents). The respondents who didn't have someone in mind tended to rate lower towards the non-charismatic end of the scale.

V. Conclusions and Recommendations

In this chapter are the conclusions reached during our research. The conclusions presented will follow from Chapter 2, Literature Review, Chapter 3, Methodology, and Chapter 4, Findings. First, we will deal with conclusions derived from the literature review. Second, conclusions from the use of our methodology will be addressed. Next, we will present our conclusions concerning our sample and the related data.

Furthermore, in this chapter we will outline some recommendations for future research concerning the attribution of charismatic leadership. Also, we present recommendations concerning future uses of like instruments developed during our research.

Lastly, we will discuss our successes or deficiencies in obtaining our research objectives. We address each objective and provide our reasoning concerning our research completion.

Conclusions

Conclusions From the Literature Review. As with Hicks (1991), we also found the same theme repeated -- there is a lack of empirical data to support the many theories of charismatic leadership. Hicks (1991) made an effort to

remedy this and there have been a few current studies (Offermann, 1990) that have also tried to empirically test leadership theories.

Another reason for studying charismatic leadership is pointed out in the section The Need For Order Chapter II, Literature Review. Shamir maintains that charismatic leadership is due to the need for order and meaning (1991:87). Furthermore, charismatic leadership has the perceived ability to provide order and meaning.

In conjunction with the need for order, comes the need to differentiate between managers and leaders. Zaleznik (1977) and Kotter (1990) highlight the differences between managers and leaders and management and leadership. People use the terms interchangeably, but there are marked differences. This is clear from the literature review.

The final and most important conclusion we reached from the literature review is that charismatic leadership is capable of transforming organizations and creating organizational excitement. Bass (1990), and Conger and Kanungo (1988) also imply that charismatic leadership is a necessary but not sufficient part of transformational leadership and the transformation of an organization. Also, charismatic leaders are proven better performers and they work well within organizations (Bass, 1990:25, Berlew, 1974:22, Conger & Kanungo, 1988:643). Therefore, there is good cause to research for a method of identifying the attribution of charisma. Empirical studies such as Hicks'

(1991), should be the basis for the information needed for a complete study of the attribution theory of charismatic leadership.

In following Hicks' research we agree that, "attribution theory provides an attractive framework on which to hang the operationalization of charisma and gather empirical evidence. Perceptions can be measured and quantified across populations" (1991:171).

The literature review also provides a discussion of the importance of identifying and training charismatics. Through psychoanalytical and sociological tests, possible charismatics may be identified. After identifying individuals for this instruction, they may be trained. Bass implies that charismatic behavior can be learned and that it should be part of management training and development (1990:27).

Conclusions From the Methodology. Our primary task was to improve and validate the semantic scales associated with Hicks' delineated factors (1991). We pursued our goal with the use of the semantic differential based instrument. It is a powerful tool able of operationalizing charisma (Hicks, 1991:171). Also, we attempted to verify three other factors from the research. Respondents are able to answer our instrument in about 15 minutes. This is quicker than Hicks' due to the fact that our instrument is about 25 percent shorter and we didn't have respondents write a critical incident. Ours is shorter because we use only the reduced

final semantic scales which gave Hicks' (1991) highest Cronbach's alpha on each factor.

We also departed from Hicks (1991) because as mentioned earlier we didn't use the critical incident technique. Our goal in doing this was to see if people who had someone in mind when completing the instrument answered differently than people who did not. Overall, our instrument provided a large data set with little time invested by the subjects. Our instrument worked well for our descriptive research.

Conclusions From the Data. This instrument was easy to complete and only about 15 percent of the respondents failed to fill out all items. As in Hicks' thesis the factors "lend themselves well to measurement using the semantic differential" (1991:172).

The 11 factors from Hicks' research were validated by our study. Table 29 summarizes our final Cronbach's alpha and Hicks' final Cronbach's alpha.

The majority of the factors had an overall alpha of 0.80 or better with two above 0.70 and two above 0.60. We used Cronbach's alpha correlations based on Hicks' conclusion it "is just as likely to have identified valid charismatic parameters" (1991:172). Also, this method makes clearer sense the factor analysis by the rotated principal factors method. We found that the factors make good sense when compared to the literature we've reviewed.

TABLE 29
A COMPARISON OF THE 11 FACTORS

Factor	1991 - Hicks	1993 - Bach & Labosky
Respect (1)	0.9428	0.8641
Empowering (2)	0.8227	0.8890
Confidence (3)	0.6903	0.8065
Commitment (4)	0.7686	0.8765
Excitement (5)	0.6704	0.8165
Member (6)	0.7054	0.7174
Tenacity (7)	0.7712	0.8621
Dominating (8)	0.8237	0.8289
Independent (9)	0.7749	0.7374
Image Conscious (10)	0.7002	0.6724
Forthright (12)	0.6585	0.6068

The three other factors tested provided the following final overall alpha's:

Pragmatic - 0.6170

Willing to Risk Self - 0.6224

Nurturing - 0.7635

The most significant one is Nurturing. However, we believe all three scores are high enough to be combined with the other 11 factors.

After we validated Hicks' (1991) eleven factors and tested the three others, we measured the difference in means for each portion of the instrument. We compared the charismatic and non-charismatic sides of the survey by doing a comparison of the difference in means. From this test

came the most significant findings of our research. Ten of the fourteen factors are clearly differentiated between types of leaders - charismatic and non-charismatic. The table on the following page presents the factors in which there was a significant difference. These results indicate that people attribute leadership differently for charismatic and non-charismatic leaders.

We also used Bonferroni's test for multiple comparisons to compare the treatments of the independent variables sex and whether or not the subject had someone in mind when filling out each portion of the instrument.

For the independent variable "sex" the only factor significantly effected was the factor "dominating." Women generally rate non-charismatic leaders higher in this factor than do men. Furthermore, with the factor "forthright" they rate two of the semantic differentials on the non-charismatic portion as higher than men.

There were no significant differences in comparing whether they had someone in mind or not when filling out the charismatic half of the instrument. On the other hand, the non-charismatic portion showed that there were seven factors which were effected. The factors were respect, confidence, commitment, excitement, tenacity, pragmatic, and nurturing. All of these factors were differentiated by the previously mentioned difference of means test between each portion of the instrument.

TABLE 30
FACTORS WITH SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN MEANS

Factor	P-value
Respect	0.0000
Empowering	0.0002
Confidence	0.0001
Commitment	0.0001
Excitement	0.0001
Member	0.0036
Tenacity	0.0001
Pragmatic	0.0004
Willing to Risk Self	0.0063
Nurturing	0.0009

The people who had someone in mind rated the non-charismatic higher than the people who didn't have someone in mind. Perhaps there is less difference between a charismatic leader and a non-charismatic leader for someone who has an individual in mind. The respondents who didn't have someone in mind rated the non-charismatic towards the lower end of the scale.

Recommendations

Recommendations Concerning the Instrument. The instrument located in Appendix A was designed to validate Hicks' 11 factors and to test three other factors from the literature.

Our first recommendation is that the instrument should be reviewed. The purpose of this review would be to reconstruct any of the semantic differentials that had poorer overall alpha coefficients of reliability. Then reconstruct and administer the instrument.

Recommendations Concerning Methodology. The instrument can be used in a few different ways. First, it is used as a test for the attribution theory of charismatic leadership. It can be used to assess supervisors on whether they are viewed as charismatic or non-charismatic leaders. Lastly, the instrument can be used to identify individuals for training in charismatic leader behavior.

First, the instrument can be used to see how leaders and followers view the individual leader. Followers and the leader can fill out the instrument and a comparison can be drawn based on the attribution of charisma. Analysis of the results will show the differences between a leaders self-perception and the followers attribution.

Second, the instrument can be used to assist leaders in evaluating their abilities and weaknesses in their superior-subordinate relationships. Once identified a practical training program could be administered. The following section outlines this concept.

Practical Training Methods. The literature clearly hypothesizes the idea that it is possible to train leaders and managers alike to take on the attributes of charismatic leaders (House and Howell, 1992; Bass, 1990; Hicks, 1991;

Berlew, 1974; and Zaleznik and Kets de Vries, 1975). Bass (1990:28) advocates a series of questionnaires in which leaders answer questions about their own leadership while followers complete a parallel survey about the leaders. Counselors then review the results with the leaders and explore differences in perceptions between the two surveys. He also suggests workshops that would allow participants to describe leaders that they felt were charismatic and explore ways that people can emulate specific charismatic behaviors from these descriptions. He goes on to suggest that leaders can carry action plans from these workshops back to the organizations which will begin to involve others in a transformation that will affect everyone it touches.

Another technique for training charismatic leaders has profound import for the military -- mentoring.

"Psychological biographies of gifted people repeatedly demonstrate the important part a mentor plays in developing an individual (Zaleznik, 1977:76). Zaleznik (1977:76) describes the relationship between Dwight Eisenhower and General Fox Conner who was "a senior officer whom Eisenhower admired." Eisenhower's career went from a nondescript dead end position to the one that we all know as the leader of the Allied Forces that invaded Europe and eventually President of the United States and Commander-in-Chief of the U. S. Military. Eisenhower stated:

Life with General Connor was a sort of graduate school in military affairs and the humanities, leavened by a man who was experienced in his knowledge of men and

their conduct. I can never adequately express my gratitude to this one gentleman... In a lifetime of association with great and good men, he is the one more or less invisible figure to whom I owe an incalculable debt. (Zaleznik, 1977:76)

It may not be possible for every officer to have a mentor such as General Connor, but the literature clearly states the efficacy of training leaders in charismatic techniques and certainly the USAF can train its leaders in mentoring techniques to allow younger members to benefit from that type of experience. Current programs which could be considered mentoring would include the White House Fellowship program in which officers are selected to serve as executive assistants and selection as Aides-de-Camp in the Army.

Revisiting the Research Objectives

We were successful in replicating and validating Hicks' finding on the eleven factors derived from grouping the 37 parameters.

The second objective of improving the reliability of some of the factors by rebuilding some of the semantic differentials was unsuccessful. We did little to improve Hicks' instrument.

Thirdly, we were productive in building semantic differential sets to represent the three other factors tested in our instrument. The factors pragmatic, willing to

risk self, and nurturing had medium overall alphas; therefore, they are significant.

Fourth, we did find that women assess the factor dominating differently than men. Also, when filling out the non-charismatic half of the instrument if the respondent didn't have someone in mind they rated people towards the lower end of the scale.

Lastly, the most significant finding is that under ten factors people clearly differentiate between the charismatic and non-charismatic leader.

Appendix A: Instrument to Test 14 Theorized Factors

PART ONE - DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Please answer the following items concerning yourself. All of your answers will be confidential. I will use the information you provide to characterize groups, not individuals.

1. Age on last birthday: _____

2. Highest education level completed (check one):

- grade school
- high school diploma (or GED)
- technical/associate degree
- college degree
- masters degree
- masters degree plus

3. Race:

- American Indian/Alaskan Native
- Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander
- Black
- Hispanic
- White
- Other

4. Sex: Female Male

5. Military: Officer Enlisted

6. Civilian: DOD Other

PART TWO - DESCRIPTIVE WORD AND PHRASE PAIRS

INSTRUCTIONS:

While filling out this portion of the survey, try to think about a person you have dealt with who you feel is a charismatic leader. You might think of a charismatic leader as someone who is special or had special qualities, which made you enthusiastically want to do things for them or to excel. We will also be asking you to respond in a similar fashion while thinking about a leader whom you dealt with who, while he or she was an effective leader, did not exhibit those special characteristics or have any special qualities which made you want to do things for them or excel. Now, focus on the person you regard as a charismatic leader and follow the instructions below.

Your personal feelings about that charismatic leader will help you in the exercise that follows. All of the word or phrase pairs below apply to your perception of the leader. Place an "X" on one of the lines between each of the word pairs listed on the pages that follow. Use your mark to show which word better describes your feelings about the leader's actions, words, character or behaviors. The farther you place your "X" to the left or right indicates how accurately the word found there describes the charismatic leader you knew. An "X" placed on the middle line indicates both or neither of the words adequately describes the leader.

KEY:

- 1 - The word on the LEFT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.
- 2 - The word on the LEFT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 3 - The word on the LEFT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 4 - Neither word or both words apply to this leader.
- 5 - The word on the RIGHT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 6 - The word on the RIGHT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 7 - The word on the RIGHT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.

EXAMPLE:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
tall	—	—	—	—	X	—	short

By choosing this response, you would be saying, "The word, SHORT, is a moderately accurate description of the charismatic leader I knew."

Ignore the numbers you'll see beside the word pairs. They are there only to help me later with computer scoring and analysis.

Charismatic Leader

Remember, the pairs below describe the charismatic leader.
Relax. Since this deals only with your perceptions, every answer you choose is right!

KEY:

- 1 - The word on the LEFT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.
- 2 - The word on the LEFT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 3 - The word on the LEFT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 4 - Neither word or both words apply to this leader.
- 5 - The word on the RIGHT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 6 - The word on the RIGHT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 7 - The word on the RIGHT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1.	unchanging	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	seeks new ideas
2.	nonrepresentative of group	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	representative of group
3.	disinterested in others' needs	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	attentive to others' needs
4.	blunt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	tactful
5.	clueless	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	perceptive
6.	inapt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	proficient
7.	practical	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	impractical
8.	mean	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	kind
9.	clouds	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	illuminates
10.	trusted	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	mistrusted
11.	frank	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	diplomatic
12.	demure	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	arrogant
13.	image conscious	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unconcerned with his/her image
14.	trustworthy	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	untrustworthy
15.	overpowering	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	submissive
16.	prudent	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	rash
17.	opportunistic	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	reluctant
18.	convincing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unconvincing
19.	values appearance	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	sloppy
20.	fails	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	succeeds
21.	irrelevant	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	relevant
22.	builds confidence	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	undermines confidence
23.	taking	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	providing
24.	pushy	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	retiring
25.	dangerous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	safe

Charismatic Leader

KEY:

- 1 - The word on the LEFT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.
- 2 - The word on the LEFT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 3 - The word on the LEFT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 4 - Neither word or both words apply to this leader.
- 5 - The word on the RIGHT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 6 - The word on the RIGHT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 7 - The word on the RIGHT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
26.	receptive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unreceptive
27.	approachable	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	remote
28.	political	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	sincere
29.	spins wheels	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	gets results
30.	respected	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	disreputable
31.	mentoring	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	leaves training to individual
32.	willing to sacrifice self for ideals	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	not willing to sacrifice self for ideals
33.	reckless	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	circumspect
34.	not willing to risk self	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	willing to risk self
35.	domineering	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	equalitarian
36.	supportive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	not supportive
37.	indiscreet	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	discreet
38.	undermines group goals	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	shares group goals
39.	false	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	genuine
40.	flounders	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	achieves
41.	maintainer	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	revolutionary
42.	concerned with reputation	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unconcerned with reputation
43.	easily ruffled	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	composed
44.	unorthodox	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	traditional
45.	modest	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	egotistical
46.	concerned with reputation	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unconcerned with reputation
47.	unconcerned for others	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	concerned for others
48.	not credible	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	credible
49.	factionist	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	team-builder
50.	member	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	non-member

Charismatic Leader

KEY:

- 1 - The word on the LEFT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.
- 2 - The word on the LEFT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 3 - The word on the LEFT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 4 - Neither word or both words apply to this leader.
- 5 - The word on the RIGHT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 6 - The word on the RIGHT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 7 - The word on the RIGHT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
51.	questioned	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	counted on
52.	radical	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	typical
53.	realist	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	acts on emotion
54.	flexible	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	obstinate
55.	inconsiderate	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	considerate
56.	repressive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	stirring
57.	retards personal growth	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	encourages personal growth
58.	intimate	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	removed
59.	ambiguous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	direct
60.	ineffectual	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	makes a difference
61.	willing to risk job	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	not willing to risk job
62.	innovative	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	routine
63.	unimaginative	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	creative
64.	people-oriented	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	isolationist
65.	like other members	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unlike other members
66.	pragmatic	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unreasonable
67.	uses haphazard methods	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	seeks expeditious methods
68.	open-minded	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	not open-minded
69.	career oriented	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	cause oriented

70. Did you have a particular person in mind as you thought about these word pairs when you filled out this section? (Circle Appropriate response) Yes / No

Non-Charismatic Leader

Remember, the pairs below describe the noncharismatic leader.
Relax. Since this deals only with your perceptions, every answer you
choose is right!

KEY:

- 1 - The word on the LEFT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.
- 2 - The word on the LEFT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 3 - The word on the LEFT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 4 - Neither word or both words apply to this leader.
- 5 - The word on the RIGHT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 6 - The word on the RIGHT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 7 - The word on the RIGHT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1.	discreet	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	indiscreet
2.	mentoring	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	leaves training to individual
3.	ineffectual	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	makes a difference
4.	unreasonable	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	pragmatic
5.	equalitarian	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	domineering
6.	unorthodox	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	traditional
7.	not willing to risk self for ideals	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	willing to risk self for ideals
8.	open-minded	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	not open-minded
9.	seeks expeditious methods	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	uses haphazard methods
10.	composed	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	easily ruffled
11.	rash	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	prudent
12.	illuminates	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	clouds
13.	values appearances	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	sloppy
14.	pretentious	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unpretentious
15.	taking	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	providing
16.	unconcerned with his/her image	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	image conscious
17.	gets results	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	spins wheels
18.	flounders	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	achieves
19.	perceptive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	clueless
20.	attentive to others' needs	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	disinterested in others' needs
21.	impractical	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	practical
22.	typical	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	radical
23.	retards personal growth	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	encourages personal growth
24.	intimate	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	removed
25.	unimaginative	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	creative

Non-Charismatic Leader

KEY:

- 1 - The word on the LEFT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.
- 2 - The word on the LEFT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 3 - The word on the LEFT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 4 - Neither word or both words apply to this leader.
- 5 - The word on the RIGHT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 6 - The word on the RIGHT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 7 - The word on the RIGHT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
26.	opportunistic	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	reluctant
27.	realist	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	acts on emotion
28.	demure	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	arrogant
29.	repressive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	stirring
30.	builds confidence	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	undermines confidence
31.	unconvincing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	convincing
32.	political	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	sincere
33.	like other members	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unlike other members
34.	circumspect	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	reckless
35.	approachable	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	remote
36.	routine	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	innovative
37.	member	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	non-member
38.	representative of group	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	non-representative of group
39.	considerate	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	inconsiderate
40.	submissive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	overpowering
41.	undermines group goals	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	shares group goals
42.	cause oriented	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	career oriented
43.	relevant	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	irrelevant
44.	not credible	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	credible
45.	blunt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	tactful
46.	disreputable	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	respected
47.	false	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	genuine
48.	willing to risk self	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	not willing to risk self
49.	frank	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	diplomatic
50.	revolutionary	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	maintainer

Non-Charismatic Leader

KEY:

- 1 - The word on the LEFT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.
- 2 - The word on the LEFT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 3 - The word on the LEFT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 4 - Neither word or both words apply to this leader.
- 5 - The word on the RIGHT is a SLIGHTLY ACCURATE description.
- 6 - The word on the RIGHT is a MODERATELY ACCURATE description.
- 7 - The word on the RIGHT is an EXTREMELY ACCURATE description.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
51.	questioned	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	counted on
52.	modest	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	egotistical
53.	people oriented	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	isolationist
54.	trustworthy	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	untrustworthy
55.	concerned with reputation	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unconcerned with reputation
56.	succeeds	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	fails
57.	proficient	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	inept
58.	not supportive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	supportive
59.	mean	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	kind
60.	factionist	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	team-builder
61.	dangerous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	safe
62.	seeks new ideas	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unchanging
63.	not willing to risk job	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	willing to risk job
64.	receptive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	unreceptive
65.	unconcern for others	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	concern for others
66.	mistrusted	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	trusted
67.	ambiguous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	direct
68.	flexible	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	obstinate
69.	pushy	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	retiring

70. Did you have a particular person in mind as you thought about these word pairs when you filled out this section? (Circle Appropriate Response) Yes / No

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13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) This study attempted to validate Hicks' (1991) findings of 11 factors which could be used to measure the attribution of charisma. Three new factors were added and their validity measured. The instrument measured whether followers differentiated between charismatic and non-charismatic leaders in terms of these factors. We tested if the subjects responded differently to the attribution of charisma based on gender or whether or not they had someone in mind as they completed the instrument. Cronbach's Alpha was used to measure the validity of the 14 factors and to compare them to previous findings. All 14 factors were validated, some with modifications, as measures of the attribution of charisma, and compared favorably with Hicks (1991). It was determined that the changes made to the original scales did not help their validity. A paired t-test showed that 10 of the 14 factors were used by subjects to differentiate between charismatic and non-charismatic leaders. Bonferroni's multiple comparison of treatments was used to reveal that men and women attribute charisma similarly except in isolated cases, and that whether or not a person had someone in mind as they filled out the survey made little difference for the attribution of charisma.

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